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11

DECISIONS OF PREGNANT ADOLESCENTS AS
THEY AFFECT LATER WELL-BEING

I would like to express my appreciation to the many people who
helped make this thesis possible.

Myra Lynch

First, a sincere thank you to my major professor, Dr. Glen
Jensen, for his encouragement, support, and endless patience.

My committee members, Dr. Brent Miller and Dr. Donald Peterson
gave valuable contributions to this work.

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree
of

Special thanks go to my mother, Louise Kanner, for countless
hours of child care and typing throughout graduate school.

Finally, I appreciate the help and sacrifice of my family in
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children, Megan, Dylan, and Erin, in giving up much of their time with

Family and Human Development

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My committee members, Dr. Brent Miller and Dr. Ronald Peterson gave valuable advice and consultation when needed. The contribution of the outstanding, knowledgeable men on my committee made my job much less difficult.

Special thanks go to my mother, Louise Katner, for countless hours of child care and typing throughout graduate school.

Finally, I appreciate the help and sacrifice of my family in helping me achieve this goal. I appreciate the love and concern of my children, Megan, Dylan, and Erin, in giving up much of their time with me in order that this thesis might be completed. To my husband, Hal, I express my deep appreciation and love for his constant support and encouragement.

Myra Lynch

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ABSTRACT

Decisions of Pregnant Adolescents As
They Affect Later Well-Being

by

Myra Lynch, Master of Science
Utah State University, 1985

Major Professor: Dr. Glen O. Jenson
Department: Family and Human Development

The purpose of this study was to examine the quality of family life presently experienced by women who were premaritally pregnant as teenagers. Self-esteem and general life satisfaction were measured in order to evaluate the results of pregnancy decisions made five to 10 years earlier. A survey design was used to (1) obtain demographic data, (2) analyze the relationships between these women and their parents, (3) determine the level and type of education completed by the women, (4) compare mothers who married before the birth of the child, single mothers, and mothers releasing their children for adoption on many variables constituting well-being. Data were gathered during personal interviews with 46 women.

In this small unrepresentative sample, the results show no significant differences in the present well-being of women based on their previous decisions. Each of the test groups exhibit interesting characteristics with regard to present marital status, amount of

education completed, and relationships with children.

The mothers who show higher levels of life satisfaction are also those who are employed either part-time or full-time and have higher family income levels.

In general, women in the study were found to be satisfied with their lives and seemed to be functioning well. Some trends were noted, indicating a need for further study, particularly in the area of mothers relinquishing children for adoption.

(98 pages)

CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

Introduction

During the past decade, teenage pregnancy has attracted considerable nationwide attention, resulting in a greater awareness of the problem and an increase in research activity and public concern. The latest research on adolescent pregnancy is significant in terms of nationwide trends and rates and also in the broad ramifications of this problem. Extensive media coverage has focused on the subject recently, although the problem has always been with us. The average age of menarche in the United States has declined from 14.2 in 1900 to about 12.45, (Petersen, 1979) yet the average marriage age for brides at first marriage in 1981 was 22 years and 23.9 years for grooms (Utah Department of Health, 1985). Therefore, the contrast between the age when conception is first possible and the age when conception is socially acceptable has become more pronounced, thus focusing more attention on illegitimacy and the greater number of births to younger teens.

Nationwide, the fertility rate of teenagers (the number of live births per thousand of all girls 15 to 19) has remained stable or declined slightly, but the Utah fertility rate is up (Miller, 1983). The pregnancy rate (abortions plus live births) is also up both nationwide and in the state of Utah. In Utah, however, teens are less sexually active than nationally, with one in five girls and one in four males being sexually active as compared to the national figure of

seven out of 10 girls and eight out of 10 males (Miller, 1983). A principal reason for the difference is that Utah also has a lower abortion rate among teens with one in six pregnancies ending in abortion in Utah compared to one in three teenage pregnancies ending in abortion nationwide (Miller, 1983).

The consequences of teen childbearing have been widely studied, especially with regard to the health risks for mother and child. Economic costs to society for teen mothers and their children is a problem that has received considerable national study and concern. Likewise, many other consequences; such as, effects on education, income, father, and grandparents have been explored by many researchers. Less information is available on the decision-making process that occurs when a teenage girl finds that she is pregnant and the far-reaching results of those decisions. We know very little about the parenting styles and techniques of these young mothers and their subsequent relationships with their children.

It is known that at the time a teenager discovers her pregnancy, many crucial decisions must be made. She must decide between abortion or delivery, marriage, single parenthood, or adoption.

Nationally, approximately 30 percent of teen pregnancies are terminated by induced abortion, (Miller, 1983; Baldwin, 1982) while the abortion rate among pregnant teens in Utah during 1978 was only 13 percent (Miller, 1983).

Fewer teenagers today, when discovering the pregnancy, decide to marry as opposed to the late 1960's and early 1970's when nearly 71 percent of unwed white pregnant teenagers and 26 percent of blacks married before the birth of the child. By the late 1970's, the number

had fallen to 58 percent of whites and only eight percent of blacks who married ("Black and White," 1981). However, in the state of Utah, the marriage rate among pregnant teens is 80 percent compared to only 30 percent nationwide (Miller, 1983).

The overall number of adoptions has declined steadily during the last two decades. In 1966, 65 percent of white teen mothers placed their children for adoption, while only 18 percent relinquished children in 1971, and only five percent in 1976 (Zelnick & Kantner, 1978; Miller, 1983).

None of the alternatives for pregnant teens are particularly optimistic and void of problems. The decision to end the pregnancy by abortion is less difficult for some, but for others the emotional effects may be considerable.

Another alternative is for the mother and father to marry, and raise the child. Most researchers agree that the divorce rate is higher for marriages involving teens and even higher for those couples with premarital pregnancies than for those who conceive after marriage. Early marriage also poses many problems with regard to truncated education, financial stress, and lack of preparation for married life (Furstenberg, 1976a).

The option of not marrying and keeping the baby is frequently used and the costs of keeping a baby for a single mother are significant. Nearly half of all families headed by women live in poverty (Lindsay, 1982). Premature parenthood often interrupts progress toward a high school diploma for the teen mother, and the lack of a high school diploma hinders her ability to support herself and her

child. Welfare or grandparents are more likely to have to assist in providing support for the young mother, although even with this assistance, many teen mothers still live well below the poverty line.

Adoption may provide another alternative for pregnant teens. There are many childless couples who are eager to adopt children and ready to accept the responsibilities for children whose biological parents are not yet able or do not want to care for them. This alternative has some advantages for both the baby and the mother, yet it is a difficult decision for the mother. Nye and Lamberts (1980) said,

For many, the decision that is best to give the baby to the care of others is an emotional crisis. Unfortunately, even if she is convinced that the child should be adopted, she sometimes experiences pressure to keep the child from school friends or even occasionally from the grandparents or the father. (p. 16)

These far-reaching decisions provide the main focus of this thesis. Considerable research has been done on the various alternatives available to the teen mother, yet little is known about the long-range effects of her choices. Specifically this research will address the relationship between a pregnant adolescent's decision at the time of her baby's birth and the well-being of the mother approximately five years later.

The mother's well-being will be examined by looking at what differences exist in the later life satisfaction of teens who choose abortion, marriage, adoption, or single motherhood. While investigating the research problem, other questions surfaced and will be addressed such as: What is the role of family and friends in the decision-making process, and what effect does that have on later relationships? How does education affect later life satisfaction? What type of

education is the most valuable? As a result of her decisions, what are the chief areas of concern for the adolescent mother?

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The following literature review will focus on two areas of information concerning teenage pregnancy and will provide a foundation for this study. The first section will provide a theoretical framework for the study of the problem, and a review of significant literature on the general problems associated with teen pregnancy and its consequences. The second section will explore the available literature on women choosing abortion, adoption, single-parenthood, or marriage as a means of dealing with their pregnancies. This section will also demonstrate the need for follow-up data on these women and the results of their decisions.

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory provides a valuable framework for the study of pregnant adolescents and their decisions regarding their children and their own lives.

The most general proposition in the theory is that humans seek rewards and avoid costs to achieve the most profitable or least unprofitable outcome. They seek the most profitable long-range outcomes, given that short-term outcomes are constant. They choose outcomes providing the most rewards, costs being constant and the fewest costs, rewards being constant. Humans make choices intended to maximize rewards and minimize costs in the attempt to achieve the most profitable outcome (Nye, 1980).

If no profitable alternative is perceived as available, the one promising the least unprofitable solution will be chosen. In some situations people do not wish to choose any alternative available to them, but if they must choose among primarily costly alternatives, they will choose the one in which they anticipate the smallest loss (Nye, 1980).

Social Exchange Theory and Adolescent Pregnancy

By integrating exchange theory with the research findings concerning adolescent mothers, explanations can be provided to account for much of the behavior of these adolescents.

The individual receiving the most rewards from a relationship is likely to be more highly committed to maintaining the relationship. This may help explain the finding that unwed mothers may be influenced by the father of the baby to keep the baby in return for the possibility of a future marriage or relationship, financial support and security (Leynes, 1980).

The theory strongly implies that autonomy is a general reward and constraint a cost. If people are autonomous, they can reject costly and unrewarding behaviors, statuses and people, and select those high in rewards and low in costs. Therefore, other rewards and costs being equal, humans choose positions and relationships which provide the most autonomy (Nye, 1980).

For the unwed mother, keeping the baby may provide escape and autonomy; freedom from parents or an unhappy home life, school, or an undesirable job (Friedman, 1975).

Helen Friedman, a clinical social worker, has written an interesting article (1975) from her own casework experiences. She reported,

For some unsettled and unhappy girls, the baby may represent a passport to freedom and independence. It may mean an apartment of her own without interfering adults. She can, she believes, establish her routines and priorities, choose her own friends, live as she wants to. The child can serve as an excuse for her to drop out of school or leave a job or give up a living arrangement she finds distasteful. For some girls, the baby is seen as a cure-all. He will solve all loneliness; all emptiness will vanish. He may represent relief from boredom or depression. He will need her and she will be important to him. He may slow her down, help her correct her ways, control her impulses, purify and assuage her personal guilt. (p. 323)

Homans (1961) and others have noted that social approval is rewarding and disapproval costly. While the specific acts which lead to approval are to some extent culture bound, approval as a reward is culture free, rewarding in all societies. Therefore, other rewards and costs being equal, humans choose alternatives expected to produce social approval and avoid those expected to result in social disapproval (Nye, 1980).

Being an unmarried mother has dual costs for the mother because she is still considered a disgrace by many and she also receives less help with child care or financial support than from a legal father.

Clark Vincent (1960) noted,

Unwed mothers who keep their children reflect a desperate need for at least one primary relationship in which they are needed and loved by someone whose dependence on them makes it safe to receive and return that love in their own way. When this need is sufficiently strong it tends to insulate against and minimize the stigma attached to being an unwed mother. (p. 116)

There are several other applications from this theory. Unwed mothers may exchange unrewarding relationships with their own parents for the hope of better relationships with their own children. Those

coming from broken homes may keep the baby to replace a parent lost through death or divorce. Also, the child may serve as barter for the unwed mother to get attention or material goods, or to attract the indifferent father or a substitute if he fails to respond (Leynes, 1980; Friedman, 1975).

Exchange theory has great utility in dealing with the "whys" of teenage illegitimacy, and provides a valuable foundation for further study into the various decisions made by the pregnant adolescent. The literature on these areas, while being increasingly abundant, is extremely variable with regard to the findings. Some of this diversity can be accounted for by the different populations surveyed in the literature. The samples range from white maternity home unwed mothers in California to black and Puerto Rican inner-city mothers. Another factor might be the span of time covered in the literature. Societal norms and mores have, in general, become more liberal during the several decades of research on this subject.

History of the Problem

A young mother wrote of her situation:

" No Better Than Me"
 I am only as human
 As nature allows,
 Governed by virtues
 And morals and vows,
 Doomed to be judged
 By persons I see,
 All in God's eyes
 No better than me.
 Followed by snickers
 And comments and stares,
 I try to pretend that
 I really don't care,
 Carrying a child

I really don't care,
Carrying a child
That's destined to be
Doomed in their eyes
No better than me.
My mind has matured
As my judgement has grown.
I know now I never
Have once stood alone.
God has opened my eyes
And now I can see
That those who will judge
Are no better than me.

Author Unknown

Although the social stigma surrounding giving birth out-of-wedlock has declined, this poem typifies the feeling of many pregnant teens in this country when facing this emotional experience. Adolescent pregnancy is of great concern to both laypersons and social scientists with the number of teen pregnancies exceeding one million in the United States each year (Baldwin, 1980; Tietze, 1978).

In the late 1960's and early 1970's, illegitimacy among adolescents became recognized as a serious national medical and social problem (Osofsky, 1968). The incidence of adolescent out-of-wedlock pregnancies was increasing rapidly. Young teenagers, ages 16 and 17, showed a steady growth in the number of births between 1960 and 1973 from 163,000 to 204,000, an increase of 25 percent. For teenage mothers under 16 years of age during the same time period, there was an 85% increase in births from 26,000 to 48,000 (Utah Department of Health, 1980). Between 1963 and 1977 the number of out-of-wedlock births in the United States, per 1,000 unmarried women ages 15-19 grew from 15.2 to 25.5, an increase of 67.8% (Utah Department of Health, 1980). There was concern that this increase represented a trend toward sexual permissiveness and the abandonment of moral values,

thereby threatening traditional marriage and family life.

At the same time, the morbidity and mortality rates among adolescents and their babies had escalated to the point that pregnant teens were classified as a high risk group. The lack of adequate medical, social, and educational services for this group resulted in investigations of the psychosocial causes and consequences of adolescent pregnancy with a view toward treatment and prevention (Plionis, 1975).

Maternal Health Risk

Researchers have been involved in studying the health risks to mother and child in teen pregnancy situations. When compared to women 20 to 24, those 15-19 years old are reported to have higher rates of toxemia, anemia, complication of the puerperium, and maternal death (Johnson, 1974; Nortman, 1974; Battaglia, Frazier, & Hellegers, 1963; Stickle & Ma, 1975).

Other studies indicate that when pregnant teens have adequate prenatal care they are not at greater risk than older childbearing women (Battaglia et al., 1963; Clark, 1971). Clark (1971) pointed out that data collected in the 1950's and 1960's showed a period of time when the pregnant adolescent received minimal care. During that time, about 65 percent of the girls did not see a physician until the last trimester of their pregnancies, and 25 percent received no prenatal care at all. More recently, the situation has improved. In 1977, six percent of girls under 16 and 3 percent of those 15-17 received no care, compared to one percent of their older counterparts.

Nutrition also is an important component of prenatal care. Even those mothers with adequate prenatal care often have inadequate diets.

The greatest maternal health concern seems to be for the girls 15 years and under. They are reported to be at greater risk for anemia, abnormal bleeding, toxemia, difficult labor, cephalopelvic disproportion (Battaglia et al., 1963; Johnson, 1974; Nortman, 1974; Stickle & Ma, 1975). Girls younger than 15, as a group tend to have more problems that cannot be explained as a result of other factors and are probably due to their physiological and anatomical immaturity (Coates, 1970; Dott & Fort, 1976).

Infant Health Risk

There has been much speculation regarding the physical, emotional, and intellectual conditions in children born to adolescent mothers, yet empirical evidence has recently begun to accumulate on this subject. The studies do indicate that there is an increased incidence of low birth weight in infants born to teenagers compared to the offspring of adult mothers (Grant & Heald, 1972).

Unlike most women who postpone childbearing until their 20's and 30's, teenage mothers increase the risk of both perinatal mortality and prematurity by each additional birth occurring before the age of 20. Approximately six percent of all first babies and almost 10 percent of second babies born to girls under 15 die in their first year (Fielding, 1978). An article by Baldwin and Cain (1980) cited data from a National Institute of Child Health and Human Development project and indicated that within the urban population studied, the children of teenagers had lower Bayley scores at eight months, lower Stanford-Binet scores at four years, and lower WISC and Wide Range Achievement Test scores at seven years than did matched controls.

Furstenberg (1976b) found that children of teen mothers performed better on the Preschool Inventory when the children spent time in day care centers or with a grandmother during the day as compared with other children who stayed home with the young mother, indicating that supplemental child care for teen mothers is often desirable.

Recent Trends

Federal figures show that during the 1970's, illegitimate births increased at a rapid rate. One out of every six U.S. babies (17%) are now born out-of-wedlock. Nationally, nearly one-third of babies born to white teenagers, and 83 percent born to black teens are illegitimate. In 1979, an estimated 597,000 illegitimate babies were born, an increase of 50 percent since 1970 ("Black and White," 1981).

In the past, social services for unmarried mothers provided a means to conceal the mother's shame and protect the child. Presently, although the rate of illegitimacy has remained high, the moral stigma associated with out-of-wedlock birth has declined due to a variety of factors. The human rights movement, an increased openness on the part of the media in presenting sexual material, and the diminished status of the traditional marriage are some contributors to this change in attitude, according to Gallagher (1973). In addition, Gallagher (1973) also noted that increased sexual activity among adolescents and the legalization of abortion may well have affected societal attitudes.

Two noteworthy trends appear to be related to the changes in attitude; a substantial increase in the number of adolescent mothers who keep their babies; and a drastic decline in adoption rates. Al-

though some pregnant unmarried women do decide to marry, to undergo an abortion, or to release their babies for adoption, it is evident that many young women prefer to establish single-parent families (Friedman, 1975; Gallagher, 1973; "Black and White", 1981; Scott, Field, & Robertson, 1981).

These decisions that the pregnant adolescent makes are of vital importance. Very little is known about the effects of this decision on the later life satisfaction of the young mother.

Influence of Others

Although the teen mother must make her own decision about alternatives when faced with a pregnancy, it is well known that the father of the baby, parents, and friends often provide a strong influence on her decision.

Male partners in Leynes' (1980) study seemed to influence the mothers toward keeping their babies. When the fathers were actively involved and wanted the mothers to keep the babies, there was a greater tendency for the mothers to do so. The majority of the adolescent mothers in this study continued to be involved with their male partners, and male partners affected mothers' plans for the babies significantly. Gabbard and Wolff (1977) found this to be true among the unwed adolescents they studied. At any given level of functioning, holding functioning constant, adolescent mothers with more male partner involvement tended to keep their babies. This finding may be reflective of some realistic planning on the part of the adolescent mothers.

This finding is in direct contrast with an earlier study in 1969

by Grow where women who decided to keep their babies had a smaller percentage of male partners who were involved.

It is very difficult to reach a conclusion based on the available information. Much more study needs to be done in this critical area. Logically, it would seem that if the unwed mother were interested in maintaining a relationship with the baby's father which might eventually lead to marriage, she would keep the baby to enhance this possibility. Due to her vulnerability, she may be influenced by the hope of a future relationship instead of seeing the alternatives clearly.

Although Helen Friedman's (1975) article stated that in her casework experience, the unwed mother's family had little to do with the decision she made, there are several conflicting attitudes. In the Leynes' study (1980) she focused on the idea that most of the women in this study have had long-standing conflict with their parents. Several of them had been on the run prior to admission to this maternity home and had very little contact with their parents. It is understandable, therefore, that the mother's decision was not significantly related to parental involvement. However, from the high degree of correlation between low parental involvement and low level of functioning, it seems that parental involvement affected choice indirectly. It was also found that women who had unrewarding relationships with their parents looked to their children for need satisfaction. This was found to be true for the adolescents studied by Smith (1977). In Smith's (1977) study, adolescents who planned to keep their babies had less need-satisfying relationships with their parents in terms of dependency and autonomy compared to those who did

not.

The study of Young et al. (1978) concluded that mothers of pregnant unmarried girls played an influential role in the lives of the girls. Mother-daughter attitudes and plans were significantly related. The influence of the mothers pervaded every area of planning that the teenage daughters engaged in for themselves and their expected babies. The first clue to this overwhelming influence came from the girls themselves; four-fifths of whom said that their mothers were the "most significant" persons in their lives. The girls' planning supported this perception. When the mothers planned that their daughters would continue to live in the family home, almost three-fourths of their daughters concurred; when the mothers planned to have the babies brought to the family home, almost two-thirds of the daughters agreed.

The actual arrangements that the girls made for the babies presented even stronger evidence of their mothers' importance in the decisions. Almost 90 percent of the daughters brought their babies to live in the family home (Young et al., 1978).

The population in Young et al.'s (1978) study was comprised of Puerto Rican and black girls in a low-income area near New York City. These girls seemed to have strong family ties and a value system based on self-preservation and preservation of the family unit. In other parts of the country, where traditional family values are esteemed, parental influence would probably also indicate that unwed mothers would keep their babies and live with their family of origin. In very traditional communities the idea of relinquishing the baby seems to be thought of as "giving up one's own flesh and blood". In this

investigator's opinion, parents of the adolescent mother play a significant role in determining her decision.

Educational Consequences

Pregnancy is the most common reason for girls failing to complete high school with some 50 to 67 percent of the female dropouts being pregnant (Coombs & Cooley, 1968). Most of these girls do not return to school and when compared with their classmates five and eleven years later, remain significantly less-educated (Card & Wise, 1978).

In Furstenberg's study, (1976a) he reported,

Even though they were generally older, the younger mothers who married during pregnancy had the highest rate (50%) of dropping out, followed closely by those who married within the first year after delivery. Withdrawal from school was somewhat lower among the young women who waited several years before marrying (46%) and lowest of all among mothers who remained single throughout the study (33%). It would seem, then, that marriage does interrupt an adolescent's educational career. (p. 138)

Although it seemed that marriage caused the students to drop out, these girls also tended to be those most lacking in scholastic ambition. Therefore, when marriage is taken in conjunction with low ambition the educational career of the mother is ended (Furstenberg, 1976a).

Lack of adequate day care and resources to provide such for their children prevents many teen mothers from graduating from high school. In a study by Menken, (1980) of 123 high school age teen mothers, 101 wanted to continue their education but of these 67 weren't able to continue because of inadequate day care for their children. Of the 123, only 34 wanted to and were able to continue their education.

In 1967, of those who became mothers from ages 13-15, only 11 percent graduated from high school compared to 39 percent of those who

waited until 18 to have their first child and 42 percent who bore their first child after age 20 (Bacon, 1974).

Although every pregnant adolescent has a legal right to continue her education, opportunities for school-age parents vary greatly throughout the country (Furstenberg, 1976a). In many localities there is still either subtle or direct pressure on the teen to leave school when it is learned that she is pregnant. Alternate forms of education are provided in some areas to meet the special needs of the pregnant adolescent. Unfortunately, relatively few programs of this nature exist. In 1967, there were only 35 special programs for teen mothers in this country (Howard, 1968). By 1972, largely because of government effort, there were 225 special programs (Furstenberg, 1976a). The Alan Guttmacher Institute (1976) noted that only 350 programs existed for all the pregnant school age girls in the United States. Now, more school districts provide some type of alternate schooling for adolescent mothers.

Most of the young women who have participated in these special programs have had less difficult pregnancies and healthier infants; many have been able to complete their educations, which is definitely a positive outcome. Teen mother programs may provide support for keeping the baby since the majority of mothers in these programs are keeping their babies. Another problem might be that the results of the programs may be short-lived. Consequently, some programs, in the interest of extending their influence, are now attempting to maintain contact with participants or to refer them to other social service agencies beyond the initial time period of contact (Phipps-Yonas,

1980). Many of these programs have been expanded beyond the traditional academic or medical framework to include a variety of topics in the area of parent education to help the pregnant adolescent better deal with the complexities of her new role.

Very little is known about the long-term benefits of these special teen mothers' programs in the overall education of the girl. More information is needed on the types of education and curriculum which would be the most beneficial in the life of the teen mother.

Other Consequences

The effect of adolescent childbearing on education is particularly important since it is the means by which occupation and earnings are affected. When women bear their first child in their teens, lowered occupational opportunities and earnings are the result (Baldwin, 1982). Early marriage may force males into the labor force at an early age and then they later have lower paying jobs and status than their classmates who did not begin their families so early (Baldwin, 1982).

The parents of the school-age mother are also affected by their daughter's pregnancy. Furstenberg (1976b) found in his study that only three percent of the grandmothers welcomed the pregnancy of their school-age daughters. Smith (1977) also reported that the grandparents are often unhappy and concerned with social disgrace, financial burden, and the desire to begin to satisfy their own needs and finally have some freedom from their own childrearing responsibilities.

The addition of a teen mother and baby to the grandparents'

household will certainly bring some burdens and benefits. Many grandparents become more accepting after the birth of the child but the situation requires considerable adjustment and compromise with regard to the problems of this living arrangement.

Teen pregnancy has also been associated with negative parenting styles (McKenry, P., Walter, L., & Johnson, C., 1979). Adolescent mothers have also demonstrated little knowledge of the normative development of children and have unrealistic early development and behavior expectations and are more prone to use physical punishment (DeLissovoy, 1973). Children of adolescent mothers are at greater risk for child abuse and neglect, poor school performance and delinquent behavior (David, 1972; Jekel, J. F., Tyler, N. C., Garbielson, I. W., Bancroft, D. R. E., & Klerman, L. V., 1973; Youngs & Niebyl, 1975).

Pregnancy Decisions

In order to more specifically study the implications of this far-reaching problem, it is necessary to focus on the decisions facing the adolescent girl when she discovers her pregnancy. The literature provides insights into the various options available, and characteristics of those in each decision group.

Abortion

Adolescents who choose abortion as a means of dealing with their pregnancy are increasing in numbers. From 1971-75 about one-third of those who became pregnant had an abortion (Menken, 1975). According to Miller (1983), in the United States in 1980, about one-half of

pregnancies among 15-17 year old teens were aborted, and among 18 to 19 year olds, 40 percent of their pregnancies were aborted. However, in Utah, the abortion rate is much lower with 18 percent of pregnancies aborted among 15-17 year olds and 16 percent among 18-19 year olds (Miller, 1983). This increase in the abortion rate nationwide has served to reduce the national adolescent fertility rate, while in Utah it has continued to increase.

Some investigators (Cooper, 1977; Fischman, 1975) have reported that abortion-seekers tend to be of higher social status, have better academic records and higher educational and vocational goals than do their peers who deliver. Gispert and Falk (1976) also found this to be true even when they matched the groups on social class. Fischman (1975) noted that the choice of abortion may be a sign of self-improvement and desire for improvement. Findings on family relationships and stability within the families of aborters and non-aborters are mixed, with some research (Fischman, 1975) showing poorer intrafamilial relationships in families of aborters; and other findings showing aborters more likely to come from intact homes than those who do not abort (Guyatt, 1978). It is difficult to conclude that there are any significant differences with regard to the quality of family relationships and stability.

Abortions are now legal during the first six months of pregnancy. The consequences for a teenager ending the pregnancy may be less than that of having a baby. The medical risk is less than having a baby, but for others with strong religious ties or other feelings against abortion, the emotional effects may be considerable (Nye & Lamberts,

1980). We have very little data on the well-being of these teenagers after the abortion. While many are able to continue with school and their lives as before the pregnancy, we do not know how they fare emotionally and psychologically after this experience.

Single Teen Mothers

During the last decade a definite single-parent trend has emerged in our society. According to Helen Friedman (1975),

One main reason that the girls give for keeping their babies is that they want to. It is possible that they are saying and doing what their grandmothers and mothers wanted to but could not. Surrendering their children for adoption may have been the saddest but surest way for these women to reestablish themselves in society. Adoption was viewed as a good and noble gift to the baby who would fare better with a prepared and intact family. It was also a noble and unselfish gift to the adoptive couple. Everyone benefited--except, perhaps, the natural mother who made the sacrifice. New values of self-expression have made sacrifice obsolete to many in contemporary America. (p. 323)

Furstenberg's study (1976a) found that the closer a single woman was to marriage, the happier she felt about becoming pregnant. Eighty percent of the single mothers reported sometimes wishing they were not going to have a child, but only 25 percent of the married women who were premaritally pregnant admitted the same feelings.

The young mother who keeps her baby and does not marry often has many problems and frustrations. Vincent (1960) found that on a group basis, those who kept their children had a significantly less favorable California Psychological Inventory profile than did those who released their babies for adoption. Those mothers who kept their children also reported more negative family relationships and home situations, with many coming from broken homes. They also tended to come from lower socio-economic status families (Vincent, 1960). Helen

Friedman (1975) also suggested that the girl may keep the child to prove to her own mother that she will be a better mother than she had. By keeping and caring for the baby she may be proving to herself that she is indeed a woman and a good person. According to Vincent (1960), those keeping their children are in reality those least qualified to do so. Their lack of education often makes employment opportunities scarce and inadequate in terms of self-support, causing most single mothers to rely on welfare and parents for support (Clapp & Raab, 1978).

There have been relatively few follow-up studies on these unmarried adolescent women after the births of their children. Finding by Bumpass & Sweet (1972) showed that women whose first births were illegitimate have substantially higher levels of disruption in subsequent marriages. One longitudinal study found that soon after the birth of their first child, almost half (48 percent) of the teenage mothers said they wished the child had been born later or not at all. Three years later 78 percent said that looking back, they would have preferred to have their first birth later (Presser, 1974). Another study which looked at the mother's psychological well-being when her child was in the first grade, found that young teenage mothers were more likely than older mothers to feel unhappy at this time (Baldwin, 1982).

With such a bleak picture of the future for the unmarried mother, one has to speculate on the popularity of this decision for so many pregnant teens. Major Helen Warnock, director of a Salvation Army maternity home outside of Tulsa said, "Just a short time ago, getting pregnant when you weren't married was the worst mistake a 'nice' girl

could make. Now having a baby is a kind of status symbol." ("Black and White", 1981, p. 67) Jeanette Alejandro of Brooklyn, who dropped out of school after the eighth grade to have a baby out-of-wedlock said, "I guess everybody wants a baby. Probably to fill in their life. They feel so bored. They got nothing to do with this life." ("Black and White", 1981, p. 67)

Because of their lack of financial resources, many unmarried mothers remain at home and face conflicts with parents over dating practices, childrearing techniques, and household responsibilities. Therefore, for many teens, motherhood does not provide the sense of freedom they had hoped to attain (Nye & Lamberts, 1980).

We have yet to discover the effects from the dual child care of the teen mother and her own parents on the children of teen single mothers. Her own opportunities are severely limited, therefore costs to society for mothers and dependent children for welfare services are increasing steadily. Although the costs are great in keeping her baby for an unwed mother, the baby may fill a deep psychological need in that mother because of her own desire to love and be loved, or compensate for her own unhappy home life.

Adolescent Marriage

Marriage to the father of the baby and having an intact family unit may not be a perfect solution either. Many studies report higher rates of marital instability, divorce, and remarriage for teenage parents. Marital dissolution rates are higher, the younger the adolescent is at the time of the marriage (Baldwin, 1982). Baldwin (1982) also suggested that the risk of marital dissolution is even

carried on through later life and may show up in an added risk of dissolution in subsequent marriages. Several studies have shown consistently that premarital pregnancy greatly increases the probability of eventual marital dissolution (Baldwin, 1982; Christensen, 1963; DeLissovoy, 1973).

Teachman (1983) found a 56 percent chance of marriage lasting 15 years among white women who married before the age of 16, while those who married between the ages of 20-24 had a 90 percent chance. DeLissovoy's (1973) study of 48 couples who married in high school and followed up for three years showed the problems involved in these premature marriages. During the three year period, a general drop in marital satisfaction and adjustment was reported. Problems in communication, intimacy and sex were also suggested. There was low satisfaction in the area of finances as well, although it was also a problem for the couples at the beginning of the study. Adolescent parents were also found to be lacking severely in knowledge of developmental norms, having an unrealistically early expectation of development (DeLissovoy, 1973).

According to Furstenberg, (1976a) premarital pregnancy disrupts the courtship process and eliminates a vital step in preparation for marriage. Marriages under these circumstances are unlikely to survive unless a solid and long-standing relationship had been established prior to the pregnancy. Furstenberg's study (1976a) also supported the hypothesis that the husband's ability to support his premaritally pregnant wife was directly related to the success of the marriage. However, Furstenberg (1976a) seemed to feel that if couples were able to reorganize their lives and make progress toward personal, education-

nal, and career goals their ease of transition into new life roles could be more successful.

Nye and Lamberts (1980) felt that there is some chance for success in teen marriages if the boy and girl have a strong commitment to one another, if the husband is a high school graduate with some work experience, and the wife is almost ready to graduate.

Coombs and Zumeta (1970) discovered a strong association between premarital pregnancy and marital dissolution. Of the women who had conceived premaritally, 41 percent were no longer living with their husbands five years later compared to 18 percent of those who had not conceived prior to the marriage.

In general, teens choosing marriage as a solution to pregnancy also face difficult odds in their struggle for success and happiness. However, if they are committed to each other and the marriage and show maturity in dealing with problems, their chances for success may be improved.

Adoption

There are fewer mothers who release their babies for adoption than ever before; less than 5 percent in 1976, compared to nearly two-thirds in the 1960's (Zelnick & Kantner, 1978). The current nationwide trend is to keep the baby and the fact that so many do this further perpetuates the reference group of so many teens. According to Leynes (1980), more unwed adolescents from high socio-economic groups have relinquished their babies than mothers from lower socio-economic groups. This has been the case traditionally since it has always been more acceptable among lower socio-economic groups to have

an illegitimate child, whereas people from higher socio-economic status worried about how the child affected their social standing. Despite the increased acceptance of unwed pregnancy and the decrease in stigma associated with illegitimate births, it seems that women with higher socio-economic status still prefer to have their babies adopted (Vincent, 1960; Leynes, 1980). Either the increase in acceptance of illegitimate births has not affected the higher socio-economic groups or other factors beside acceptability weigh more on the choice of the unwed adolescent mothers from higher socio-economic groups.

Adolescents who are psychologically more mature or functioning better tend to release their babies for adoption. In Horn and Turner's (1976) study, the results of the Minnesota Multiphase Personality Inventory indicated that the scores on the personality profiles of mothers who gave up their babies for adoption were less deviant than those scores for the unwed mothers who kept their babies. Clark Vincent's earlier study (1960) showed similar results. Those who relinquish babies may also have higher occupational and educational goals, and may be more mature and responsible (Leynes, 1980).

Little is known about these girls who decide to relinquish their babies for adoption in terms of later life satisfaction and adjustment. There are many childless couples who are eager to accept the responsibilities of parenthood and in most cases, the adoption decision improves the child's prospects for the future. But what of the mother's life after she makes this difficult decision? Much

information is needed to determine the long-range effects of her choice.

Research Need

Today, there is a wealth of information on the subject of teen pregnancy in general. The vast majority of research focuses mainly on cause and effect. The areas of adoption, middle-class mothers who keep their babies, and marriages of premaritally pregnant teens need to be investigated in much greater detail. There are some longitudinal studies on teenage marriages to predict later happiness and life satisfaction, but most were done many years ago. However, very little research is found on later well-being of mothers who relinquished their babies for adoption. What does the future hold for the single mother with her many problems and frustrations? More research is needed on future outcomes for all these groups of women if we are to provide vital information which could be valuable to the pregnant adolescent in making such a far-reaching life decision.

There is currently no available research comparing premaritally pregnant women who married, remained single, or relinquished their babies for adoption and the effects of their decisions. Predictions of future happiness and well-being based on these decisions would be important to those who counsel and provide social supports for teen mothers.

Summary

The literature has given extensive information on rates and trends in teen pregnancy in this country and the state of Utah. Ex-

change theory can provide a framework for understanding the various decisions or alternatives chosen by pregnant teens. The influence of the father of the baby and parents were considered with regard to the teen mothers' decisions. Further consequences of the pregnancy on the mother's educational and occupational future were reviewed. The lives of the teen mother's parents are also affected by the decisions of the pregnant teens with abortion having the least effect, and their daughter and child living with them, the greatest effect. The various decisions made when a teen discovers her pregnancy have been explored. Abortion, single parenthood, marriage, and adoption have been discussed with characteristics of girls in each group defined by the available research. The long-term consequences of these decisions were evaluated according to availability of the literature.

Adolescent pregnancy and illegitimacy are problems that will not go away. What can be done about the large numbers of young mothers and babies whose lives are permanently altered? This problem constitutes a cycle of tragic lives, and other lives immeasurably affected by them.

Much more information is needed on this subject. Most of the available studies concentrated on very specific populations, mainly from maternity homes. The results of the studies are not very conclusive considering the small number of participants and the specific geographical areas used.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to provide insight into the quality of family life of three groups of premaritally pregnant women, five to 10 years after their adolescent pregnancy experience. The groups were comprised of married women, single women, and women relinquishing the child for adoption at birth. Self-esteem and general life satisfaction were measured in order to evaluate the long-term results of these decisions made five to 10 years earlier. Relationships between women and their parents were explored and the degree of parental influence studied to help determine the effect of that influence on later family ties. The amount and type of education completed by the women was studied and evaluated to provide information for school districts in providing programs and curriculum to meet the needs of non-traditional students.

The Sample

The sample consisted of female students who withdrew because of pregnancy five to 10 years ago from the regular high schools of two school districts in semi-rural northern Utah.

Permission was secured for the study from the superintendents of both school districts and the names of students who withdrew from school during that time period were obtained. As the purpose of this research was to study young women who became pregnant in high school,

only the names of female students were used. Information on students who dropped out of the regular high school was found in the past school board minutes of one school district. However, specific reasons for withdrawal were not always given, and students were not listed as dropouts when they transferred to an alternate high school program. The other school district did not have names of dropout students listed in school board minutes or another consolidated source for that time period. Therefore, records of the Alternate Learning Center, a young mother's program serving both school districts, were used to provide names of students who had withdrawn from regular high school during this time period due to pregnancy.

The sample was purposive in nature rather than random. Three groups were studied; those who married before the births of the children, those who remained single and kept their babies, and those who relinquished their babies for adoption. Sample groups of twenty mothers who married and twenty single mothers were selected from the names. There was a larger number of women who married before the child's birth than any other group. The twenty women for this group were selected randomly from those who could be located. The single and adoption groups were much smaller and all available names were used. A social service agency agreed to attempt to provide additional names of women in the adoption group. From their records for the same time period, some names were found, but the agency was only able to ascertain the present whereabouts of about four girls. When contacted by the agency to seek permission for the girl to be contacted by the researcher, all subjects, but one, refused to participate in the study. One girl in the adoption group from the records of the

Alternate Learning Center also refused to be interviewed. Due to the much smaller number of mothers relinquishing babies for adoption, the sample group of mothers who relinquished was six. Knowledge of each girl's marital status at the time of delivery and her decision for the baby's future allowed the respondents to be put in the three groups by the researcher.

The Instrument

Each of the subjects was interviewed by the researcher using a research instrument that included the Rosenberg (1965) self-esteem scale, questions from the Gurin et al. (1960) survey and selected demographic questions. The questions from Gurin were modified slightly to fit the sample.

The Rosenberg (1965) self-esteem scale is recommended by many family life professionals as being one of the best instruments currently in use for evaluating self-esteem. The scale contains ten Likert type items, allowing one of four responses: strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree. Reliability was tested using the Guttman procedure and the reproducibility of this scale was 92% and its scalability was 72% for Rosenberg's sample of 5,024 students (Robinson & Shaver, 1969). The scale appears to be carefully constructed, items are quite general and are appropriate for adults as well as high school students. Since self-esteem is only one facet of the total information wanted, a short and general index of self-esteem such as this scale worked well.

While there are many instruments which measure life satisfaction,

the Gurin et al. (1960) survey yields extensive information into happiness; lends itself to an interview format, has high reliability and validity, and evaluates the effects of economic, health, family and job factors on personal satisfaction (Robinson & Shaver, 1969). Questions from the Gurin et al. (1960) were incorporated into the questionnaire, particularly to measure life satisfaction in the areas of marriage and children. Due to the length of this survey, only certain questions specifically related to the objectives of the study were used.

Other demographic questions regarding educational attainment and personal characteristics were also asked.

The instrument was divided into nine sections. Section 1 solicited information on biographical and occupational data, and also provided income statistics.

Section 2 asked questions regarding leisure activities in order to provide a picture of the social life of the women surveyed.

Section 3 was designed to report information on marital status, and degree of happiness with that status. Questions were also selected to portray attitudes toward men's and women's roles in marriage and solicit information on the respondent's own marital happiness. Areas of marital conflict as well as sources of marital satisfaction were also explored, to provide as much information as possible on the marital relationships of the women surveyed.

Section 4 dealt with the relationship between the subjects and their children. Questions assessed strengths and weaknesses in the parent-child relationships and also provided data on discipline techniques used by these women with their children of different ages.

Section 5 was concerned with the educational background of the subjects from the time they left the regular high school to the present time. Reasons for their withdrawal from school were solicited. The participation of these students in alternative educational programs was explored and curriculum evaluated as to the ability to meet student needs and as preparation for future life experiences. Information on post-high school education and training was also collected from this section.

Section 6 revealed decisions that the respondents made as pregnant adolescents, concerning what to do about their pregnancies. Subjects were asked to evaluate the merits of those past decisions in the light of their current perspectives.

Section 7 solicited information on relationships between the subjects and their parents during the following three periods of their lives: During high school, after they left high school, and at the present time. This section also explored the degree of influence of the parents on the respondents' decisions regarding their pregnancies.

Section 8 measured religiosity of the subjects during the high school years, after leaving the regular high school and at the present time.

Section 9 was administered to measure current self-esteem with the Rosenberg (1965) scale.

The Procedure

After the names of students were obtained from school records, subjects were contacted by telephone and the study was explained to

them. The subjects were assured that their names would not be disclosed, and the individual responses given in the interviews would be kept in strictest confidence.

If the subject agreed to participate in the study, an interview time was scheduled by the researcher. The researcher conducted face-to-face interviews with the subjects in their own homes. Respondents were encouraged to provide an atmosphere for the interview where they could answer questions without anyone else overhearing their answers.

Analysis of Data

Data were collected using a questionnaire created by the researcher and administered in personal interviews with the women in the sample.

Analysis of variance was performed using the Rummage Statistical Program at the joint College of Family Life and College of Education Computer Laboratory at Utah State University. The following dependent variables were created using items from the questionnaire: Self-esteem, life satisfaction, happiness/satisfaction, and relationship with parents at the time of the pregnancy. Then each of the preceding response variables was tested for differences depending on level of group, post high school training, marital status, income, and employment, while controlling for the age of the respondents. Significance was determined at the .05 confidence level.

When life satisfaction was tested for differences with level of income, some trends were noted. In order to further understand those results, cross tabulations were performed to assess relationships between income levels and employment status of the women.

Frequency tabulations were computed for each questionnaire item and by group using the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). Mean scores and standard deviations were also ascertained.

A variable called "parent support" was created using responses to questions asking about the amount of support given by parents to the adolescent mothers' decisions regarding marriage and pregnancy. This variable was then correlated with parental influence on decisions, relationship with parents in high school, after leaving high school, and relationship with parents now, and present happiness and general life satisfaction. The Pearson r was used to ascertain the correlation coefficients.

The SPSS condescriptive command was used to determine the range and total scores used from individual responses as part of composite questions. Reliability tests were also performed in order to check the internal consistency of the scales which were used.

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

1. There will be no significant differences in the mother's current self-esteem on the basis of her decisions at the time of the baby's birth.
2. There will be no significant differences in current life satisfaction between women choosing marriage, single parenthood, or adoption.
3. There will be no significant differences in current relationships with parents based on the amount of support of the

parents at the time of the adolescent mother's pregnancy.

4. The amount of education completed by the young mother will have no significant effect on her self-esteem and later life satisfaction.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Characteristics of Sample

As previously stated, the sample consisted of three groups; one group who married before the birth of the child, a second group who remained single and kept the baby, and a third group who released the baby for adoption. There were 20 respondents in each of the first two groups and six women in the adoption group. All of the participants were white except for one hispanic. Nineteen of the 46 respondents were not working outside the home (41.3%). Thirteen were working full-time (28.3%) and 14 part-time (30.4%)

The women in the sample ranged from 18 to 27 years old. Table 1 shows a distribution of the women by age and by pregnancy decision group. Income range for all groups was between \$3,000 and over \$30,000 per year. Almost half of the women (47%) reported family incomes of \$15,000 to \$29,999. Over 10 percent of the sample had a family income of \$30,000 or more and 41 percent had incomes below \$15,000 per year, as shown in Table 2.

Present marital status of the sample showed that 27 women (58%) were currently married to their first husband, eight women (17%) to their second husband, two women (4%) were in their third marriage. Six women were divorced (13%), two were separated and one had never married. (See Table 3)

In Table 4, it is noted that respondents who were currently married, ranked the following as the most frequent sources of conflict

Table 1
Distribution of Respondents by Age
and Pregnancy Decisions

Age	Pregnancy Decisions		
	Married	Single	Adoption
18			1 (16.7%)
19	-	-	-
20		2 (10%)	1 (16.7%)
21	1 (5%)	3 (15%)	1 (16.7%)
22	7 (35%)	1 (5%)	-
23	4 (20%)	3 (15%)	-
24	3 (15%)	3 (15%)	1 (16.7%)
25	3 (15%)	4 (20%)	1 (16.7%)
26	1 (5%)	4 (20%)	-
27	1 (5%)	-	-
Total	20 (100%)	20 (100%)	6 (100%)

Table 2
Distribution of Respondents by Income

Income	No.	%
\$3,000 to 7,999	5	11%
\$8,000 to 11,999	6	13%
\$12,000 to 14,999	8	17%
\$15,000 to 19,999	11	24%
\$20,000 to 29,999	11	24%
\$30,000 or over	5	11%
Total	46	100%

Table 3
Distribution of Respondents by Current Marital
Status and Pregnancy Decision

Marital Status	Pregnancy Decisions		
	Married	Single	Adoption
Never Married	-	-	1 (16.7%)
First Marriage	11 (55%)	13 (65%)	3 (50%)
Second Marriage	4 (20%)	3 (15%)	1 (16.7%)
Third Marriage	2 (10%)	-	-
Divorced	2 (10%)	4 (20%)	-
Separated	1 (5%)	-	1 (16.7%)
Total	20 (100%)	20 (100%)	6 (100%)

Table 4
Rank Order of Reported Sources of Conflict
by Married Respondents

Conflicts	No.	%
Discipline of Children	16	43%
Finances	15	41%
Communication	10	22%
In-Laws	7	19%
Social Life/Friends	4	10%
Sex	2	5%
Religion	2	5%

Note. Respondents could list more than 1 source of conflict.

in their marriages: Discipline of the children, financial concerns, communication problems and in-laws. When the respondents were asked about the quality of their present marriages, 77% described their present marriages as either "happier than most" or "very happy". Forty-two of the 46 women in the sample had at least one child living with them, with the range being one to four children. The mean number of children for each woman was 2.19. Four women in the adoption group did not have children living with them at the time of the study.

The respondents were asked to choose from a list provided by the interviewer, the most frequent method of discipline used. Table 5 shows that data. " Sometimes" and "often" responses were added together to determine the rank of a particular method. The discipline techniques that are the most frequently used by the mothers in this sample are talking to and reasoning with the child, yelling at or scolding the child, and spanking the child on the bottom or slapping hands.

Thirty-one of the 46 women (67%) in the sample had not received any formal post high school education in the five to ten years following high school. Seventeen percent received less than one year, 10 percent received one to two years, and four percent received three to four years additional post high school education. Of those receiving additional education , 78% had either vocational secretarial training or college business courses. (See Table 6 for distribution of women by post high school training and by decision group)

When the women in the sample were asked to reflect on their current feelings concerning their decision to leave the regular high school and attend an alternate program, 67% said they "felt good"

Table 5
Rank of Type and Frequency of Discipline
Techniques Used by Respondents

Discipline Techniques	Rank	Frequency of Use		
		Never	Sometimes	Often
Talking/Reasoning	1	1	10	31
Yell/Scold	2	2	33	7
Spanking/Slapping hands	3	2	33	7
Timeout/Child to room	4	5	27	10
Grounding	5	12	26	4
Send Child to bed	6	17	23	2
Spanking with objects	7	34	7	1
Take away money	8	35	7	-

Table 6
 Distribution of Respondents by Post High School
 Training and Pregnancy Decisions

Post Training	Pregnancy Decisions		
	Marriage	Single	Adoption
None	14 (70%)	12 (60%)	5 (83%)
Less than 1 year	3 (15%)	5 (25%)	-
1-2 years	2 (10%)	3 (15%)	-
3-4 years	1 (5%)	-	1 (17%)
College Degree	-	-	-
Total	20 (100%)	20 (100%)	6 (100%)

about that decision while 28% "still regretted" leaving their high schools. Four percent reported having "mixed" feelings about the decision.

Various questions were asked concerning the respondents' decisions regarding marrying or remaining single, keeping the baby or releasing it for adoption. The respondents were asked about these decisions they made at the time of their pregnancy, and if they would make the same decisions again, knowing what they know now. Ninety-three percent of the women surveyed said that they would make the same decisions again. Only three respondents would have changed their decisions; two would have released the baby instead of keeping it and one mother who remained single would have married the father if she had the decision to make again.

Thirty-eight of the 46 (82%) stated their religious preference as Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints (Mormons), with 37 (80%) describing themselves, presently, as "very religious". In contrast, when describing their church attendance, only 26% reported attending church regularly and 23% reported not attending church at all. This raises a question as to their definition of being very religious.

In order to provide comparisons and descriptive information, the sample was divided into three groups based on the decisions made prior to the babies' births. As previously mentioned, the three groups are mothers who married, mothers who remained single and kept the baby, and a third group who released the baby for adoption. Characteristics of each group are described in the following section:

Married Group

Women who married prior to the birth of their children were white, except for one hispanic. The age of this group, ranged from 21 to 27 years old. The mean age was 23.35 years. Eight women were not working in the group of 20, while 10 worked part-time, and two worked full-time. The income level ranged from \$3,000 to over \$30,000 for this group. The mean income was found in the \$12,000 to 14,999 category.

Fifty-five percent of these women who married due to premarital pregnancy were still married to their original partner. They also reported either being "somewhat happy" (25%) with their current marital status or "very happy"(75%). It is interesting to note that none described themselves as being "unhappy".

When asked to describe their lives, 45 percent said that they were "pretty happy" and 55 percent said they were "very happy". The majority of this group (60%) described their lives as "pretty satisfying". Thirty-five percent termed it "completely satisfying" and five percent reported that life was "not very satisfying".

Seventy percent of this group received no post high school training or education.

Single Mothers

This group of 20 mothers who were single at the time of the babies' births were white and the mean age was 23.5 years. Nine of these women (45%) presently were not working, two (10%) were employed part-time and nine (45%) were working full-time. All income categor-

ies within the range were also represented for this group, with the mean income found in the \$12,000 to 14,999 category.

Sixty-five percent of the women in this group are now married to their first husbands, and 20 percent are currently divorced. Eighty percent of this group are "very happy" with their current marital status, and 10 percent reported being "somewhat happy."

When describing the quality of their lives, 55 percent termed their lives as "pretty happy" and 45 percent as "very happy". Seventy-five percent also described their lives as "pretty satisfying" and 20 percent as "completely satisfying".

Sixty percent of these mothers received no post high school education.

Adoption Group

The adoption group only consisted of six white women with a mean age of 22 years. The youngest woman (18 years) was also in this group, having released her child when she was 13. Two women in this group were not working, while four had either part-time or full-time employment. The mean family income for this group was in the \$15,000 to 19,999 category.

Half of the women who released their babies for adoption were currently married to their first husband. One had never married, one was currently separated, and one was married to her second husband. All but one of the women were "very happy" with their current marital status.

Only one (17%) of the six women in this group received any post high school training or education.

Sixty-seven percent of this group, described their lives as "very happy" and 33 percent reported that they were "pretty happy". When they described general life satisfaction, 67 percent termed their lives "pretty satisfying", while 33 percent described their lives as "completely satisfying".

Interestingly, no women in this group would change their decisions regarding their pregnancy choices if they had to make those decisions again.

Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis 1 stated: There will be no significant differences in the mother's current self-esteem on the basis of her decisions at the time of the baby's birth. The three groups in the sample were asked questions from the Rosenberg (1965) self-esteem scale of 10 questions during the course of the interview. One might anticipate a difference in self-esteem as a result of these life-changing decisions made by pregnant teens. However, there were no significant differences in the self-esteem scores between the three groups of women as is shown by Table 7. Therefore, there is not sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis, so it was accepted as tenable. These results would seem to indicate that added maturity, personal relationships, and other significant life events tend to have a greater effect on self-esteem than a single event in the past, however traumatic at the time. It would also be interesting to know if the self-esteem scores for the three groups were significantly different immediately following the delivery of the baby. It is quite possible that at that time period there could have been differences which have evened out with the

Table 7
ANOVA Summary Table on Self Esteem

Source	df	Mean Square	f	Sign. f
Group	2	11.16	.62	.548
Post training	3	3.89	.21	.885
Income	5	3.36	.18	.966
Employment	2	3.84	.21	.811
Religion	3	14.57	.80	.502
Age	1	.01	.00	.986

passage of time.

Hypothesis 2 stated: There will be no significant differences in current life satisfaction between women choosing marriage, single parenthood, or adoption. In order to measure current life satisfaction, some questions from the Gurin et al. (1960) survey were used with other questions. The life satisfaction questions concerned the following items: Job satisfaction, satisfaction with marital status, satisfaction with marriage, relationship with children, success as a parent, satisfaction with educational decisions, satisfaction with pregnancy decisions. When reliability tests were performed on the life satisfaction composite scale, the alpha level was .3208. This relatively low level can be partly explained by the fact that some answers were missing due to some women not presently being married, not working, or not having children living with them. Another variable created by the researcher and called happiness/satisfaction was made up of two general questions. One asked, "Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days? Would you say you're (1) not too happy, (2) pretty happy, or (3) very happy?" (Gurin et al., 1960) The other question asked, "In general, how satisfying do you find the way you're spending your life these days? Would you call it (1) not very satisfying (2) pretty satisfying or (3) completely satisfying?" (Gurin et al., 1960) The two questions comprising this additional variable had better reliability and could be used either as one variable or as two separate questions.

Tables 8 and 9 show that no statistically significant differences were found in life satisfaction by group. The general happiness/satisfaction variable was also not found to be significant

Table 8
ANOVA Summary Table on Life Satisfaction

Source	df	Mean Square	f	Sign. f
Group	2	53354.64	2.94	.068
Post training	3	30672.27	1.69	.190
Income	5	60860.43	3.36	.016
Employment	2	429474.72	23.72	.000
Religion	3	13287.27	.73	.54
Age	1	14835.61	.81	.37

Table 9
ANOVA Summary Table on Happiness/Satisfaction

Source	df	Mean Square	f	Sign. f
Group	2	.019	.028	.972
Post training	3	.105	.150	.929
Income	5	.510	.728	.608
Employment	2	.532	.759	.477
Religion	3	1.081	1.541	.225
Age	1	.362	.517	.478

by group.

Therefore, hypothesis 2 which states: There will be no significant differences in current life satisfaction between women choosing marriage, single parenthood, or adoption, was accepted as tenable. However, the test results by group did approach significance (.068) on the life satisfaction variable and some interesting trends were noted. (See Table 8) The mean scores on life satisfaction, which were adjusted for level of group, post training, income, employment, and religion while controlling for age, for the group of married mothers was 101.7, the same mean for the single mothers was 155.8, and for the adoptive mothers, -35.4. The standard deviation of the mean for the adoptive mothers was 72.3 in contrast to the standard deviations of 44.5 and 47.5 in the other two groups. The most satisfied single mothers were the most satisfied of all groups while the least

satisfied adoptive mothers were the least satisfied of all. Mothers in the adoptive group who were highly satisfied with their lives were more satisfied than the same category of women of the other two groups. The adoptive group seemed to show extreme variability within the group. Some mothers were very satisfied with their lives and decisions and others did not feel as positively on this composite score. However, these findings might be negated by the small number in the adoption group.

When life satisfaction among the women was tested for differences, with other variables, income (.016) and employment (.00) were found to have a significant effect on life satisfaction. (see Table 8) As might be anticipated, life satisfaction increased as income rose. The only exception was with the second income group of \$8,000 to \$11,999. With this income group, life satisfaction did not follow the same trend but fell substantially. When a cross-tabulation of income by employment was done, it was found that 13 percent of the sample was in this second income group. This was the only group where all the respondents were working either part-time or full-time. Perhaps part of the reason for not being very satisfied could be explained by the fact that although all of these women were working, the total family income was still fairly low. The tests also produced significant results to show that the women who were the most satisfied with their lives were those who were working part-time outside the home. The next most satisfied women were those working full-time, and the least satisfied women were those who were not working outside the home at all.

Hypothesis 3 stated: There will be no significant differences in later relationships with parents based on the amount of support of the parents at the time of the adolescent mother's pregnancy.

In order to analyze the correlation between the support of parents and subsequent relationships with their daughters, a support variable was created using two questions from the questionnaire. One asked, "How supportive were your parents about your decision regarding marrying or remaining single?" The other question asked, "How supportive were your parents about your decision regarding your pregnancy?" Table 10 shows that this variable was then correlated with the influence of parents at the time of the decision, the relationship with parents during the high school years, the relationship with parents after leaving high school, the relationship with parents now, with self-esteem and present happiness using the Pearson r .

When the parental support variable was correlated with relationship with parents now, significance of .05 was not reached, so the hypothesis was accepted as tenable. Interestingly, only two correlations achieved significance with the support variable. Influence of parents was positively correlated with parent support, and present happiness related to parental support at the time of the baby's birth. (see Table 10)

It is highly probable that those parents who had a great influence on the decisions their daughters made at the time of the pregnancies also supported their decisions, since, in effect, the teen mothers might have been doing what their parents had encouraged them to do under those circumstances. It might also be reasonable to

Table 10
Pearson Correlations between Parental Support
and Relationship Variables (N=46)

Variable Correlated with Support	Correlation	Significance
High school relationship	.125	.407
Alternate program relationship	.062	.684
Current relationship	.251	.093
Parents' influence	.439	.002
Happiness	.292	.049
Satisfaction	.137	.365
Self-esteem	.054	.721

suggest that those parents with more positive relationships with their daughters might be more influential in their decision-making and also more supportive of the adolescents' decisions, due to the nature of their relationships.

Although there was a significant correlation between present happiness and parental support of pregnancy and marriage decisions five to 10 years previously, it would be very difficult to attach very much significance to this finding. Parental support may contribute to the overall happiness of an individual, but it is only one piece of the total picture. We know that other factors, such as; income, employment, marital status, success as a parent, health, etc. may also play an important part in one's general feeling of happiness.

Hypothesis 4 stated: The amount of education completed by the teen mother will have no significant effect on her current self-esteem and life satisfaction. Analysis of variance was performed using both the self-esteem variable and the life satisfaction variable. Each was tested for differences depending on level of post high school education or training. (see Tables 7 and 8) Neither test showed sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis. This finding is not too surprising when one considers that the majority of women in the sample (67%) did not have any post high school education at all. Another 17 percent had less than one year of schooling. Self-esteem and life satisfaction were probably not affected substantially by the lack of training or education by the women because it would seem quite "normal" to have little or no additional training based on these statistics. The reference group for the majority of these women is

made up of women who have little or no education past high school, few job skills and low paying jobs. Quite frequently, people feel fine about themselves if they are doing as well as other people they know, and those with whom they relate.

Another explanation regarding the lack of correlation between post high training and self-esteem and life satisfaction could possibly be found in the career expectations of the young women in the sample. Although there are no data concerning the career objectives of these women, it has been the experience of the principal investigator in this study that the majority of these young women, particularly during this time period, planned on full-time careers as mothers and homemakers. Therefore, many of them did not seek further education after high school. The majority were also married with a child at the time of high school graduation, and possibly did not anticipate working outside the home. If their circumstances changed later due to divorce, perhaps most felt the financial necessity of finding a job immediately. The possibility of added training or education at that point would have been more difficult financially, and therefore would have required added motivation, sacrifice, and determination. Consequently, their post high school training was possibly in harmony with their future goals and objectives, thereby failing to cause feelings of inadequacy or dissatisfaction with their lives.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

One of the important reasons for this study was to assess the well-being of young women five to 10 years following the birth of a child during their adolescent years. Very little is known about the impact of their decisions on their later lives. The Rosenberg (1965) self-esteem inventory showed a range of scores from this sample from 24 to 39 out of a total possible score of 40. Answers ranged from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" (1-4 points possible) on 10 positive statements about themselves. The mean score for the women was 31.06. This score indicates that on the average, women in this sample feel pretty good about themselves at this point in their lives. They are agreeing with positive statements about their abilities and overall perceptions of themselves. The responses to the questions assessing general happiness and satisfaction with life for all test groups were very positive.

While many problems and frustrations are present in the lives of these premature mothers, the outcome for the future may not be quite as bleak as portrayed in the majority of existing literature on the subject.

Part of the difference in the findings of this study and the existing research might be explained by the variability in the different populations surveyed. This study was conducted in a semi-rural area of northern Utah where the majority of respondents were members of the dominant (Mormon) religion. Many of the young mothers

surveyed became pregnant as a result of long-standing, fairly committed, relationships with one person. Many of the women in this study had above average relationships with their parents and families and would be considered middle-class, economically. In contrast, many past studies have focused on minority inner-city and maternity home mothers. Many similar studies have dealt primarily with teenage runaways, and troubled young women with a history of family conflict (Leynes, 1980). The young women in this study may be doing better now, simply because they have always done better than their less advantaged counterparts.

The decline of the moral stigma once associated with illegitimacy and premarital pregnancy may also have had an effect on the self-esteem and life satisfaction of the women in the study. Where the consequences of becoming pregnant as a teenager may once have affected her life for many years, it may now be significantly less detrimental.

By many standards, the well-being of the women in the sample might be questioned. These mothers have little if any post high school training, low paying jobs, relatively low family incomes, and many responsibilities. Yet they reported generally positive attitudes toward jobs, marital status, parents, and especially, their own children.

While there were no significant differences between the three groups of women on self-esteem and life satisfaction, some of the descriptive findings for each group were very interesting.

Within the group of women who married due to the pregnancy, 55 percent were still married to that original mate at the time of the

study. This would substantiate Teachman's (1983) study finding 56 percent of white teenage marriages lasting 15 years compared to a higher percentage for older couples for the same time period.

Furstenberg (1976a) felt that teen marriages had an even lower chance for success unless a solid and longstanding relationship had been established before the pregnancy. With regard to the sample group of married women, this certainly seems to be true. Nye and Lamberts (1980) also recognized these factors which seem to have contributed to the slightly higher rate of success in these marriages. Coombs and Zumeta's study (1970) of women who conceived premaritally found similar marital success rates five years later.

When comparing the findings for the group of single mothers with the research on mothers of illegitimate children, some interesting differences were noted. Bumpass and Sweet (1972) found higher levels of marital disruption among women whose first births were illegitimate. In this study 65 percent of the women were still married to their first husband, which would not support Bumpass and Sweet's (1972) findings. In fact, the rate of marital success with the first husband is greater for the single mother group than for those who married before the birth of their child. These mothers married later, were not forced to marry because of the child, and hopefully, learned from their previous experiences.

Less is known about the adoption group than any other group. Less than five percent of babies were released for adoption in 1976 (Zelnick & Kantner, 1978). The adoption group in this study consisted of only six women because of the scarcity of mothers relinquishing their babies, difficulty in locating those who released, and the

reluctance of many women to discuss their pasts. Leynes' study (1980) indicated that women who released their babies had higher occupational and educational goals. While it would seem logical that releasing the baby would enable the mother to more easily continue her education and pursue a career, this study did not support that concept. In fact, only one of the six women in the study received any post high school training or education at all. This study also demonstrated extreme variability in the women within the adoption group. Based on the size of this sample group, it would be unwise to draw any definite conclusions or make any generalizations. However, some tendencies were observed which would suggest a need for further study of this group. While none of the women regretted relinquishing their children, some were not very happy or satisfied with their lives as compared to others in the adoption group who were "very happy".

This was the only group where some potential respondents did not want to talk at all about the past and refused to take part in the interview procedure. One woman who refused to participate said, "That is part of my nightmare past, and I want to leave it in the past." Even five to 10 years later, some of these women do not seem to have resolved their feelings concerning the adoption of their child. Some others who did participate in the study had not told anyone of their adoption experience. One woman who was now married with several children had not told her present husband of the child she had released for adoption.

Limitations

Due to the lack of follow-up information on these three groups of mothers, this study was intended to be exploratory in nature. Generalization of the results are limited by the following conditions:

(1) Because of the unavailability of records on girls who left the regular high school, only girls who had attended the Young Mothers' Program were included in the sample. It is realized that this might bias the outcome of the study since only girls who opted for the Young Mothers' Program were represented.

(2) The adoption group was only comprised of six women. Ideally, this group should be at least the size of the other two sample groups of 20, but due to the number of women releasing their babies for adoption, this was impossible.

(3) The majority of the subjects in the sample were of the same religion, the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints. Feelings of self-worth and life satisfaction may be tied in with religious values in this culture.

(4) It would also have been interesting to study the long-range effects on women choosing abortion. However, there was no way to identify women from this area who chose abortion.

These findings are tentative, but indicate areas of concern for added research and study in the future.

Recommendations

Teenage pregnancy is a problem that deserves added concentration and study when one considers the number of lives that are affected.

Additional information is needed on the long-range effects of these pregnancies on their lives. It would be helpful if school districts kept better records of students' reasons for withdrawal to facilitate follow-up study.

There needs to be greater communication between researchers and social service agencies. Health, family life, and nutrition education; financial and housing assistance; vocational and personal counseling; continuing education; and day care are services needed by the pregnant adolescent.

Family planning programs to prevent further pregnancies also have merit.

Adequate counseling with appropriate follow-through is essential, not only for the unwed mother, but also for the girl's family and father of the baby.

Some possible areas of investigation are the following:

(1) Added research into the consequences of adoption on the emotional and psychological well-being of mothers who release their babies.

(2) Investigation into the effects of dual child care of the single teen mother and her own parents on the children of single mothers.

(3) Study of the impact of teen pregnancy and the mother's decision, relating to resolving the pregnancy, on her own parents, siblings, and grandparents.

(4) Research into the effects of the teen mother's pregnancy on the subsequent well-being and life satisfaction of the father of the baby.

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APPENDIX (ES)

Appendix A

Respondent Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE
Section A

INTERVIEWER: PLEASE OBSERVE AND RECORD RESPONDENT'S RACE

1. Respondent's race:
1. white
 2. black
 3. hispanic
 4. oriental
 5. native American
 6. other
- _____

2. How old are you?
- _____

3. Are you currently employed outside the home? 1. yes

- A. Part _____
B. Full _____
2. no _____

INTERVIEWER: IF ANSWER TO QUESTION 3 IS YES, ASK
QUESTIONS 4 & 5, IF NO, GO TO QUESTION 6.

4. What is your present occupation? _____

5. How much do you like your present job?
1. I hate it
 2. not very much
 3. it's ok
 4. pretty well
 5. very much
- _____

6. What is your present annual combined family
income, from all sources? (You and husband,
if married; you alone if single)

1. \$3,000 to 7,999
 2. \$8,000 to 11,999
 3. \$12,000 to 14,999
 4. \$15,000 to 19,999
 5. \$20,000 to 29,999
 6. \$30,000 or over
- _____

=====

Section B--Leisure Activities

One of the things we would like to know is how people spend their time.

7. For instance, how do you usually spend your leisure time when your work is done...What kinds of things do you do, both at home and away fromhome?
- _____
- _____

8. Do you have any hobbies that you do regularly in your leisure time?
1. yes
 2. no

INTERVIEWER: IF YES TO QUESTION 8, ASK QUESTION 9. IF NO, GO ON TO QUESTION 10.

9. What are these hobbies?
- _____

10. About how often do you get together with friends or relatives--like going out together or visiting each other's homes?
1. never
 2. less than once a month
 3. a few times a month
 4. once a week
 5. more than once a week
- _____

=====

Section C - Marriage

11. What is your present marital status?
1. never married
 2. first marriage
 3. second marriage
 4. third marriage
 5. divorced
 6. separated
 7. widowed
- _____

12. How happy are you being married, single, divorced or separated?
1. very unhappy
 2. somewhat unhappy
 3. neither happy nor unhappy
 4. somewhat happy
 5. very happy
- _____

13. Now, thinking about a man's life---how is a man's life changed by being married?
- _____
- _____
- _____

14. Then, thinking about a woman's life---how is a woman's life changed by being married?
- _____
- _____
- _____

INTERVIEWER: IF RESPONDENT IS PRESENTLY MARRIED, ASK QUESTIONS 15-20. IF NOT, GO ON TO QUESTION 21.

15. What is your husband's present occupation? _____
- _____
16. We've talked a little about marriage in general. Now, thinking about your own marriage, what would you say are the best things about it? _____
- _____
- _____
17. Every marriage has its good points and its bad points. What things about your marriage are not quite as good as you would like them to be? _____
- _____
- _____

INTERVIEWER: SHOW CARD #1 TO SUBJECT.

18. What are the chief sources of conflict in your marriage? Look at card #1 and give me the main causes when conflict occurs.
- _____
19. What are your principal concerns at the present time in relation to your marriage? _____
- _____
- _____

20. Considering all aspects of your marriage,
how would you describe it?
1. not very happy
 2. a little unhappier
than most
 3. just about average
 4. a little happier
than most
 5. very happy
-
21. If you are not currently married, are you?
1. not currently
dating
 2. occasionally dating
 3. regularly dating
more than 1 person
 4. seriously dating
one person
 5. living with a
person of the
opposite sex

Section D - Children

Now Id like to ask you some questions about children.

Do you currently have children living with you? yes _____
no _____

If you presently have children, answer questions

22-38. If not, proceed to Section E.

22. First, thinking about a man's life, how is a man's life changed by having children? _____

23. Then, thinking about a woman's life, how is a woman's life changed by having children? _____

24. What would you say is the best thing about having children? _____

25. Many women feel that they're not as good mothers as they would like to be. How often have you felt this way?
1. often
2. sometimes
3. never

INTERVIEWER: IF ANSWER TO #25 IS SOMETIMES OR OFTEN,
ASK QUESTION 26. IF ANSWER IS NEVER, GO ON TO #27.

26. What kinds of things have made you feel this way?

27. What are some of the ways you've been a good mother?

28. How would you rate your relationship with your children?

1. poor
2. fair
3. good
4. excellent

29. In your own opinion how successful do you feel you are as a parent?

1. very unsuccessful
2. somewhat unsuccessful
3. somewhat successful
4. very successful

30. What are the ages of your children?

Looking at card #2, how often do you use the following discipline techniques with your
(INTERVIEWER: INSERT CORRECT AGE OF CHILD)
_____ child?

AGES

____ I ____ I ____ I ____ I

INTERVIEWER: SHOW CARD #2 TO SUBJECT

31. Time outs/sending child to room
32. Slapping hands/spanking on bottom
33. Talking to/reasoning with child
34. Yelling or scolding child
35. Grounding or taking away privileges
36. Taking away allowances or money
37. Sending child to bed early
38. Spanking with other objects than hand

____	I	____	I	____	I	____	I
____	I	____	I	____	I	____	I
____	I	____	I	____	I	____	I
____	I	____	I	____	I	____	I
____	I	____	I	____	I	____	I
____	I	____	I	____	I	____	I
____	I	____	I	____	I	____	I
____	I	____	I	____	I	____	I

INTERVIEWER: REPEAT THE LIST OF DISCIPLINE
TECHNIQUE QUESTIONS FOR EACH CHILD THE SUBJECT HAS.

=====

Section E-Education

Now I'd like to ask you some questions about education.

39. At what point in your high school years did you leave the regular high school?

1. during the 9th grade
 2. during the 10th grade
 3. during the 11th grade
 4. during the 12th grade
-

40. Looking at card #3, what were your chief reasons for leaving your regular high school?

41. Looking at card #4, during your high school years, what other educational decisions did you make?

42. How long did you attend this program or did you take the GED test?
1. one quarter or less
 2. 2-4 quarters
 3. 2 years
 4. 3 years or more
 5. received diploma
 6. received completion certificate
-

43. How did you feel about your educational decision at the time you left regular high school?

44. How do you feel about that decision now?

45. Looking at card #5, if you attended the Alternate Learning Center, the Career Development Center, or the night school program, how do you feel the program met your needs at the time you attended it?

46. Again looking at card #5, if you attended one of the above programs, how do you feel this program met your needs as you see it now? _____
47. Looking at card #6, which areas taught in the curriculum were most helpful to you? _____
48. Again looking at card #6, which areas taught in the curriculum were least helpful to you? _____
49. How much post-high school training or education have you received? (If none, go on to question 51.)
1. none
 2. less than 1 year
 3. 1-2 years
 4. 3-4 years
 5. college degree
- _____
50. What type of post-high school training or education did you receive?
1. none
 2. vocational training
what type?
 3. college
what major?
- _____

=====

Section F - Pregnancy Decisions

51. Did you become pregnant during your high school years?
1. yes
 2. no
- _____
52. Were you married at the time you became pregnant?
1. yes
 2. no
- _____
- INTERVIEWER: IF ANSWER TO QUESTION #52 IS YES, PROCEED TO SECTION G. IF ANSWER IS NO, ASK QUESTION #53.
53. What was your decision at the time of the pregnancy?
1. marry the father
of the baby
 2. marry another man
 3. remain single
- _____

54. How was your pregnancy resolved?

1. delivered the baby
 2. abortion
 3. miscarriage or stillbirth
-

INTERVIEWER: IF ANSWER TO QUESTION 54 IS
DELIVERED THE BABY, ASK QUESTION 55. IF ANY
OTHER ANSWER IS GIVEN, PROCEED TO QUESTION 56.

55. Did you keep the baby or give it for adoption?

1. keep
 2. adoption
-

56. Looking back on the decisions you made
at the time of your pregnancy, would you
make the same decisions again, knowing
what you know now?

1. yes
 2. no
-

57. If no, what would you do differently?

=====

Section G - Family Relationships

58. How supportive were your parents about
your decisions regarding marrying or
remaining single?

1. very unsupportive
 2. somewhat unsupportive
 3. didn't care
 4. somewhat supportive
 5. very supportive
-

59. How supportive were your friends about
your decision regarding marrying or
remaining single?

1. very unsupportive
 2. somewhat unsupportive
 3. didn't care
 4. somewhat supportive
 5. very supportive
-

60. How supportive was the father of the baby about your decision regarding marrying or remaining single?
1. very unsupportive
 2. somewhat unsupportive
 3. didn't care
 4. somewhat supportive
 5. very supportive
-
61. How supportive were your parents about your decision regarding your pregnancy?
1. very unsupportive
 2. somewhat unsupportive
 3. didn't care
 4. somewhat supportive
 5. very supportive
-
62. How supportive were your friends about your decision regarding your pregnancy?
1. very unsupportive
 2. somewhat unsupportive
 3. didn't care
 4. somewhat supportive
 5. very supportive
-
63. How supportive was the father of your baby about your decision regarding your pregnancy?
1. very unsupportive
 2. somewhat unsupportive
 3. didn't care
 4. somewhat supportive
 5. very supportive
-
64. How much did your parents influence the decisions you made?
1. no influence at all
 2. somewhat influenced my decisions
 3. greatly influenced my decisions
-

65. How much did your friends influence the decisions you made?
1. no influence at all
 2. somewhat influenced my decisions
 3. greatly influenced my decisions
-
66. How much did the father of your baby influence the decisions you made?
1. no influence at all
 2. somewhat influenced my decisions
 3. greatly influenced my decisions
-
67. Looking at card #7, which number best describes the relationship between you and your parents during your years in the regular high school?
-
68. Looking at card #7, which number best describes the relationship between you and your parents after you left regular high school?
-
69. Which number best describes the relationship between you and your parents now?
-

=====

Section H - Religion

Now I'd like to ask you some questions about religion.

70. What is your religious preference?
1. Protestant
 2. Jewish
 3. Catholic
 4. LDS
 5. none
 6. other (specify)
-
71. Looking at card #8, which number best describes how religious you were during your years in regular high school?
-
72. Still looking at card #8, which number best describes how religious you were in the time period after you left the regular school?
-

73. Which number best describes how religious you are now? _____
74. Looking at card #9, which number best describes how frequently you attended religious services during your years in regular high school? _____
75. Still looking at card #9, which number best describes how frequently you attended religious services in the time period after you left the regular high school? _____
76. How frequently do you attend religious services now? _____

=====

Section I - Self-Esteem

Now I'd like to ask you some questions about the way you feel about yourself. Please look at card #10 for this entire section and give me the number of the answer that describes your feelings most of the time.

77. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others. _____
78. I feel that I have a number of good qualities. _____
79. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. _____
80. I am able to do things as well as most other people. _____
81. I feel I do not have much to be proud of. _____
82. I take a positive attitude toward myself. _____
83. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself. _____
84. I wish I could have more respect for myself. _____
85. I certainly feel useless at times. _____
86. At times I think I am no good at all. _____

=====

86. Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days--would you say you're:

1. not too happy
 2. pretty happy
 3. very happy
-

87. In general, how satisfying do you find the way you're spending your life these days?
Would you call it:

1. not very satisfying
 2. pretty satisfying
 3. completely satisfying
-

Thank you very much for your help!

Questionnaire

Interview Cards

CARD #1

1. Discipline of the children
 2. Financial concerns
 3. Sex
 4. Religion
 5. In-Laws/parents
 6. Social life/friends
 7. Communication
 8. Other (please specify)
-

CARD #2

1. Never
 2. Sometimes
 3. Often
-

CARD #3

1. Marriage
2. Pregnancy
3. Disliked school
4. Needed/wanted to work
5. Financial reasons
6. Health reasons
7. Pressure from family
8. Other (please specify)

CARD #4

1. No other decisions
 2. Attended Community Night School
 3. Attended Alternate Learning Center
(Young Mothers' Program)
 4. Attended Career Development Center
 5. Took GED Test
 6. Other (please specify)
-

CARD #5

1. Not well at all
 2. Not very well
 3. Average
 4. Well
 5. Very well
-

CARD #6

1. English (grammar, writing, literature)
 2. Psychology, marriage, parenting
 3. Math, consumer education
 4. Social studies, history, government
 5. Science, health, physiology
 6. Secretarial/vocational subjects:
type, shorthand, work/study experience
 7. Sewing, foods, homemaking skills
-

CARD #7

1. Very cool and distant
 2. Somewhat cool and distant
 3. Somewhat close and warm
 4. Very close and warm
-

CARD #8

1. Not religious at all
 2. Not very religious
 3. Somewhat religious
 4. Very religious
-

CARD #9

1. Not at all
 2. Only on special days (Christmas, blessings, etc.)
 3. Occasionally
 4. Fairly often (once or twice a month)
 5. Regular (once a week or more)
-

CARD #10

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly agree

Appendix B

Research Proposal for School Districts

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY · LOGAN, UTAH 84322

COLLEGE OF FAMILY LIFE

DEPARTMENT OF
FAMILY AND
HUMAN DEVELOPMENT
UMC 29

September 15, 1983

A Research Proposal for the Completion of the Master of Science Degree
in Family and Human Development

Principal Investigator: Myra Lynch
Major Professor: Dr. Glen O. Jenson

We propose that Logan School District and Cache County School Districts
release names of dropout students during 1977 and 1978 school years.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES:

1. To measure the present level of family relations in the lives of students who dropped out of regular high school five-to-six years previously.
2. To identify groups of students based on reason for dropout and focus on students dropping out for marriage and/or pregnancy as the target group for the study.
3. To identify possible relationships between decisions regarding pregnancy and later life satisfaction.
4. To assess general life satisfaction among this group at the present time.
5. To evaluate self-esteem of the individuals in this group.
6. To gather demographic data regarding income level, educational and occupational achievement, marital and family status, and to provide a profile of their lives to this point.

BENEFITS TO THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS INCLUDE:

1. Ability to determine which programs were more beneficial to dropout students in completing their education and for later life experiences.
2. Would also help administrators evaluate present offerings in meeting the needs of dropout students.
3. Would assess the impact of education on the later life of the students.

Research Proposal
Page 2

4. Would provide information regarding value of the Alternate Learning Center in providing an education for young mothers.
5. Would allow for assessment of curriculum offerings at the Alternate Learning Center as students indicate which subjects provided the greatest benefit.
6. Would provide information regarding past experiences of similar students to aid future students in making decisions concerning pregnancy alternatives.

Individuals would be contacted and given the option of participating in the study or not. Individuals wishing to participate would be sent a mail questionnaire which they could complete in privacy and return. Confidentiality of individual responses would be guaranteed.

VITA

Myra Lynch

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: Decisions of Pregnant Adolescents As They Affect Later Well-Being

Major Field: Family and Human Development

Biographical Information:

Personal Data: Born at Joplin, Missouri, August 27, 1945, daughter of Charles Robert and Louise F. Katner; married Harold Lynch August 19, 1972; three children--Megan, Dylan, and Erin.

Education: Attended elementary school and junior high school in Miami, Oklahoma, graduated from Miami High School in 1963, attended university classes at Oklahoma State University (Stillwater, Oklahoma), Université de Grenoble (Grenoble, France), in 1968 received the Bachelor of Arts degree in Drama from Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah; completed requirements for Master of Science degree in Family and Human Development in 1985.

Professional Experience: 1968-73, teacher at Box Elder High School, Brigham City, Utah; 1974-85, teacher and director of the Alternate Learning Center, Logan, Utah; 1983-84, editor of alumni newsletter for the College of Family Life, Utah State University, Logan, Utah.